NEW ENGLAND FARMER,

AND GARDENER'S JOURNAL.

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AGRICULTURAL.

We have the pleasure to present to the agricultural public the subjoined highly valuable communication; and acknowledge ourselves much indebted to the kindness of this intelligent and skilful cultivator for having at our request presented it. Our attention in passing on the road from Pawtucket to Providence had been always particularly attracted to the improvements going on on this farm, and the order and neatness which marked the premises. The last spring, on a visit to some relatives, we had the pleasure of examining the excellent management pursued at the establishment. The cultivator it will be seen from the style of address, is a friend. This most exemplary christian sect are always remarkable for their neatness and order, qualities which are so valuable, and produce so much comfort in life. "Thou shalt be neat and clean, and systematic and orderly in thy person and in all thy dealings" is a commandment, which if they have not actually added it to the decalogue, seems to have with them almost as high an authority. A slovenly Quaker is a "rare bird;" an anomaly seldom occurring. We cannot too much commend them for this. "Order is Heaven's first law." Neatness, as a friend was accustomed to remark, is next to godliness; it is essential to good manners, and almost equally so to good morals; its opposite is certainly a violation of what are called the minor morals of society. H. C.

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For the N. E. Farmer.

North Providence, 6 mo. 4, 1838.

RESPECTED FRIEND, HENRY COLMAN:—

I have never known more profitable results from the application of any manure to light and sterile soils, whether loamy, sandy, or gravelly, than from leeched or unleeched ashes. They have long been used in Rhode Island with great success especially in the growing of barley and clover to which they seem peculiarly adapted.—As evidence of the estimation in which they are held by the farmers of the Island, ten cents per bushel have been paid for them in Newport for the last twenty years and upwards, and though considerable quantities have been furnished from different places on the sea-board, the demand for them has always exceeded the supply. They are generally used at the time of seeding, spread on an even surface and harrowed in lightly with the grain and grass seed. The quantity varying from 50 to 100 bushels per acre.

In 1833, a lot of land falling under my management which had then recently been purchased at $30 per acre, seven acres of it and perhaps the least valuable part, which in my opinion never possessed fertility, though it is usually called worn out land, being a sandy plain, gravelly subsoil, were ploughed and rolled in order to secure for the benefit of the crop what little vegetable matter had been turned under; about 1600 bushels leeched ashes were then spread on the lot, and it was sowed with 10 quarts millet and 16 lbs. Southern or small clover seed to the acre. The season proved dry and the seed took badly, the crop of millet was 10 tons by estimation, and was sold for $180. 19 tons clover were supposed to have been obtained the two succeeding years at four cuttings; this too was sold for $316. The clover having nearly all perished in the winter of 1835-6 it was pastured the season following, and last year 1136 bushels ashes having been applied to it, it was again sowed with millet, and stocked as before with southern clover, 20 lbs. to the acre.—The product was 13 tons millet, for which I credited the owner $221, retaining it for my own use. Like results have been obtained from similar treatment of the same description of soil in various instances, this not having been selected because the most striking, but because the amount for which the crops sold fixes their value, without knowing exactly the quantity produced, which in each case has been supposed. The labor bestowed on the lot was more or less blended with other business of the farm; it is therefore difficult at this period of time to ascertain the amount charged. I believe however it did not exceed the charge in the subjoined account.

Cost of land,	$210 00
" Ashes for both dressings,	215 54
Seed for do.	41 25
Ploughing 10 1-2 days,	21 00
Rolling 3 1-2 do	7 00
Harrowing 3 1-2 do	7 00
Carting outside furrows,	7 50
Sowing 3 days,	3 00
Carting and spreading ashes,	54 00
Cutting, curing, and housing 41 tons millet and clover,	123 00
5 years taxes,	2 10
Interest accruing on transaction	46 00
	$737,39
Cr.	
By Produce sold, amounting to	$717 00
Value of pasturage,	15 00
Value of lot in its present condition,	385 00
	$1117 00
	737 39
	$379 61

There is reason to suppose from present appearances that the lot in question will cut two tons clover this season per acre it will therefore be seen that my valuation is a high one. A repetition of the treatment it received, would no doubt improve still more the texture of the soil, but I am inclined to think there might be a falling off instead of an advancement in the amount of its productions, by subsequent ashings. Should this be the case it would indicate a suitable condition for more permanent improvement by manuring.

There is but one instance in which I can make out the exact quantity of milk sold in a year. It amounts to 11,131 1-2 gallons, this is exclusive of a supply for the family, and was produced by I suppose an average of 20 cows. There have been seasons when I think a larger quantity has been produced in proportion to the number of cows kept, but the manner in which my books have been kept, hardly ever specifying more than the amount received for the article sold, does not enable me to determine with accuracy the quantity sold in any other year. In the instance given the milk was disposed of to one person at a certain rate, which with the amount of sales being known determines the quantity. How much was used by the family is not known, probably not more than 300 gallons.

In regard to the bog there is yet but little to be said, a greater part of it being yet on the tide of experiment, whether successful or not, time will determine. The burnt part has hitherto been most productive. In 1835, 1-2 acre was pared, the turf burnt, and the ashes spread over the surface. The year following it was planted with potatoes, the crop paying for the land at $30 per acre and all expenses accruing from its improvement. Last year nothing was taken from it, it was seeded the latter part of summer, and now promises a large crop of hay.

Respectfully thy friend,
ADAM ANTHONY.

(For the N. E. Farmer.)

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ON THE NUTRITIVE QUALITIES OF VEGETABLE ESCULENTS.

Persons who have the best intentions towards health, in proportioning their quantum of animal to vegetable food, are sometimes much deceived on that point, not being aware of the small quantity of solid matter which exists in a large bulk of a given esculent vegetable. The potato the chief vegetable of the dinner table, varies in its composition according to the kind. We may safely assume, from the chemical analyses made by various individuals, that one quarter only or about 25 per cent. of their weight is solid vegetable nutriment. According to Vauquelin and Percy, 1 lb. of good bread is equal in nutritive power to 2 1-2 lbs. of potatoes; and 75 lbs. of bread and 30 of meat, are equal to 300 lbs. of potatoes.

Cabbage has been examined by Schrader, and found to contain, in every hundred parts by weight, but 6 7-10 of solid matter; that is, 1 lb. contains less than 1 oz. of matter that can contribute nourishment. This agrees nearly with the estimate of Sir H. Davy.

Greens, according to Vauquelin, contains 8 per cent. of solid matter capable of nourishing, or 1 1-4 oz. in the pound.

Cucumbers, according to the estimate of Dr John, contain 97 per cent. of water, and of the remaining 3 per cent. only 2 1-3 per cent. can prove nutritious.

Sir H. Davy estimates the nutritious portion of red beet-root at about 15 lbs. in every hundred. He represents turnips to contain but 4 1-5 per cent. of solid nutritive matter; that is, 1 lb. contains less than three-quarters of an ounce. According to Vauquelin, however, the quality is 8 per cent. The latter chemist found that 3 lbs. of turnips and 4 lbs. of cabbage are equal in nutritive effect only to 1 lb. of potato.

Carrots, according to Davy, contain 9 4-5 per cent. of solid matter capable of nourishing; but Vauquelin's estimate is 14 per cent. Adopting a mean therefore, we find that 1 lb. of carrots supply nearly 2 oz. of solid nutriment. The quantity of solid matter attributed to the parsnip by Davy, is 99 per cent; but that all this is nutritious may well be doubted.

Green peas may be inferred, from the analysis of Einhoff, to contain 70 per cent. of solid matter, but how much of this is nutritive it is hard to determine. Vauquelin says, they contain 93 per cent. Sir H. Davy estimates the solid matter of dry peas at but 57 per cent.; and if this be correct, it is not possible that green peas can contain anything like the quantity stated by Vauquelin or even Einhoff. It is evident, however, that peas are rich in nutriment, and possess this peculiar quality, that about one-fifth of the solid matter estimated in the analysis of Einhoff, partakes somewhat of the nature of animal matter, which, taking one kind with another, will average 35 per cent. of real nutriment.

Beans also contain this partly animal, partly vegetable substance. The solid nutritive matter contained in beans, according to Davy, is 57 per cent. the same as in peas. The beans examined by Einhoff, contained about 75 per cent. of matter which might be supposed capable of nourishing. According to Vauquelin, French beans contain 92 per cent. of nutriment; and modifying Einhoff's analysis of kidney beans, it would appear that they contain much about the same proportion.

Apples and pears are composed of similar ingredients, but in different proportions; the chief are acid, water, sugar, gum, and woody fibre. In 100 parts of apple by weight, there are no less than 86 parts of mere water, and but 13 of other ingredients capable of contributing a very inferior kind of nutrition.

Gooseberries contain 81 per cent of water, and 8 per cent. of stone and woody matter, the remaining ingredients amounting to 11 per cent. consisting of acids, gum, sugar, lime, and albumen, all of which may prove nutritious in some degree.

The juice of lemons consists of mucilage, sugar, citric acid, and water, the last ingredient existing in it at the rate of 97 1-2 per cent.

According to the analyses of Sir H. Davy, Wheat contains 95 per cent. of nutriment; Rye 79 per cent., and Oats 76 per cent. Barley is less nutritious than wheat or even oats.

NORTH AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES.

At the seventh meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, Dr Warren, of Boston, offered remarks 'On some Crania found in the Ancient Mounds in North America.' Whatever related, he observed, to the lost nations of N. America is interesting. The fate of a people which occupied the richest part of that country, for an extent of more than a thousand miles, is involved in the deepest obscurity. Nothing remains of their history, and we can gather no ideas of what they were and what they did but from the constructions existing in the territory they inhabited. These works are numerous, and scattered over the country, from the lakes of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico. They consist of regular lines, having considerable elevations and great extent, of mounds or pyramidal eminences, and of spacious platforms of earth. These different works were adapted for fortifications, for places of worship, and for cemeteries. Within the last two years, reports, he said, had reached the Atlantic States of very extensive remains of structures indicating the existence of one or more considerable cities in the territory of Ouisconsin, formerly a north west territory of the United States. The antiquity of some of the numerous works alluded to was great; there are circumstances which led him to refer them to a period 800 or a 1000 years back. The circular and pyramidal eminences seem to have been destined for two purposes: for places of worship and for cemeteries. Some of them contain immense heaps of bones, thrown together promiscuously, as after a bloody battle; in others the bodies are regularly arranged, and in some there are only one or two bodies: the bones in the last are usually accompanied by silver and copper ornaments, some of which are extremely well wrought. The crania found in these mounds differ from those of the existing Indians, from the Caucasian or European, and in fact from all existing nations so far as they are known. The forehead is broader and more elevated than in the North American Indian, less broad and elevated than in the European; the orbits are small and regular. The jaws sensibly prominent, less so indeed than in the Indian, more so than in the European. The palatine arch is of a rounded form, and its fossa less extensive than in the Indian or African, more than in the European, owing principally to a greater breadth of the palatine plate of the os palati. But the most remarkable appearance in these heads is an irregular flatness on the occipital region, evidently produced by artificial means. These peculiarities, with others more minute, give a character to these skulls not found in any living nations. Dr Warren also stated that he had received other crania, which at first view he believed to be of the same race of nation, for they resembled them in all their peculiarities, more nearly than one Caucasian had resembles another; and he exhibited drawings and a cast in proof of the exactness of this resemblance; but these latter, he observed, were scies of ancient Peruvian heads. Now the cemetes of the ancient Peruvians are distant from the Ohio mounds more than 1500 miles, yet the facts stated above rendered it certain, in his opinion, that these nations were connected by blood, and rendered it probable that the northern race, having driven from their country by the ancestors of the existing race of North American Indians, retired after a long resistance, to South America, and gave origin to one of the nations which found the Peruvian empire. Anatomy, also he observed, showed that there was much resemblance between the crania spoken of and those of the modern Hindoos; and instruments, ornaments and utensils have been discovered in the mounds, which bear a great resemblance to articles of the same description seen in Hindostan. The facts stated above lead him to the following inferences:—1. The race whose remains are discovered in the mounds were different from the existing North American Indian. 2. The ancient race of the mounds is identical with the ancient Peruvian. To these conclusions might be added others tending to support existing opinions, but which are hypothetical:—1. That the ancient North American and the Peruvian nations were derived from the southern part of Asia. 2. That America was peopled from at least two different parts of Asia, the ancient Americans having been derived from the south, and the existing Indian race from the northern part of the same continent.—*Silliman's Journal.*

(From Siliman's Journal)

ON THE DRY ROT.

BY PHINEHAS RAINEY, MIDDLETON, CONN.

To Prof. Siliman.—*Sir*—Permit me through the medium of your very valuable and widely circulating Journal, to lay before the public the following facts and observations in relation to the *dry rot* in timber.

It is matter of history, that the timber of the ancients lasted some hundreds of years longer than that of the moderns, and there is no record that their timber was subjected to any artificial process to make it durable. It is therefore probable, the reason why the dry rot exists to such an alarming extent in the heart-wood of the timber of the present day, is to be found in the season of cutting the trees. It is probable that the present general practice of cutting timber in the winter was avoided by the ancients, and that it originated in England, when the botanical theory, that the sap of trees is in their roots at that season of the year, was first promulgated.

It is true, that when trees are cut in the winter months, the alburnum will not be affected by the dry rot for a great number of years afterwards, and indeed I do not know if it be removed from the heart-wood, that it ever would be affected by that disease in its proper type: and hence the origin of the delusion, and of consequence the practice above alluded to. But in this case, the deadly disease is lurking in the heart-wood, and will, as assuredly as time rolls on, burst forth and destroy its texture in the course of about eight years; and hence the destruction of life and property, and the annual complaint from our government ship-yards. I was once a devotee to the cutting of timber for vessels in the winter, until the following circumstances led me to renounce this ruinous practice.

It was the general custom here, to cut timber for vessels in the winter, but notwithstanding, they went into decay, and wanted repairing in about seven years, or from that to eight, while some of them lasted twelve years. I ascribed this variation in their durability to the fact that the cutting of the timber was often commenced in October, and then continued through the intermediate months into March. I therefore concluded that the right season was in December, when I supposed that the sap was certainly in the roots, and if cut in that season, I believed it would leave the deadly poison in the stump; of consequence, the body and branches would be entirely free from its influence, and I therefore came to the determi-

nation to carry this opinion into practice the first opportunity, and one soon occurred.

In 1810, I was concerned in the building of a small freighting ship, of which I was the sole conductor, from her keel until she was completed and ready for sea. According to my previous determination, I commenced the cutting of the timbers for her in the early part of December, and continued it into the first week of January. By so doing, I expected to produce the very best ship on the Connecticut river, where there were then numerous vessels building. The timber selected was white oak, and white chestnut. The vessel advanced, and in April it was found that three of the quarter top timbers were wanting, and (as very crooked pieces were required for these) I was obliged to go into the woods and have them cut. Some time in May, it was found that the stick designed for plank-sheers this was very large, and intended to make the whole that was wanted) would not answer the purpose, except that it was barely sufficient to go around the bows, the other part being badly rent, and of course was rejected. I therefore went into the woods a second time, when the leaves were full grown and the bark would peel, and had two thrifty white oaks cut for the after pieces. These timbers were put in immediately, and so were the plank-sheers, without any seasoning whatever, and the room between the timber above the air streak was filled with salt, which was supposed to be a preventive against the dry rot. The workmanship was of the first order.

The vessel was launched, and completed in July, 1811. That autumn she went to sea, and after the declaration of the war of 1812, she came to Middletown, and was laid up here until the peace of 1815. In that spring, when she was to be fitted out again, it was found that she must be repaired in her hull; and on opening her, it was perceived that the dry rot had made such destruction among her timbers, that it became necessary to build her anew from her middle wale up.—But the three quarter-timbers spoken of, which had been cut green, were sound, and appeared new, although their neighbors on each side of them, were destroyed by the disease; and it is a remarkable fact, that the spikes, when pulled out of them, were bright, and appeared new, but those parts of them which came in contact with the outside planks, (which were made from timber cut in December,) were badly oxidated, so much so, that they were reduced in size nearly one quarter. The plank-sheers forward, which, it will be remembered, were cut in December, were destroyed by the disease, but the after pieces were sound and dry, and the under sides appeared like new timber seasoned in the shade; and what is remarkable as to them is, that although some of the timbers on which they rested were so decayed that they might be picked to pieces, yet there was not the least appearance of it on them, which shows, that although surrounded by corruption, they were themselves, at least up to that period, incorruptible. Thus it can be seen, as respects this vessel, that not only the season of the year, which in the popular opinion is the best to cut timber in, for the purpose of making it last well, was strictly adhered to, but also the precautionary measure of applying salt, which is, even at this day, thought to retard the progress of the disease.

Although it was not thought necessary at that time to repair this ship below the middle wale, yet I have every reason to believe that the poison had begun its work in her timbers, from light-water mark to her top-side, for in 1816 or 1817, in a perfect calm she sank at sea, a poor miserable decayed hulk, a melancholy comment on the folly of cutting timber for vessels in the winter months. By inquiry since, I have always found, that of those vessels that last the longest, the timber of which they were constructed was cut the farthest from December.

The facts in this case entirely changed my opinion. Before, I thought, because it was the general practice, that the winter months were the best season to cut timber in; now I began to reason, to examine, and to compare. I fully believed that the sap was the cause of the dry rot, and wherever that was stored away, at the death of the tree, there would it make its first attack; I doubted, however, the botanical theory, that it is principally in its roots in the winter, and there protected from injury by the frost; for I could not clearly see how the roots of the birch, beach and sugar maple, (although the quantity they will bleed in a season, is partly accounted for in their being supplied by the fibre roots,) could contain their sap; and if they could, how it could be protected from the frost there, any more than in any other part of the tree, when not more than one tenth part of the roots were below the frost. I was therefore determined to ascertain, if possible, where the sap reposed in trees, at different seasons of the year.

Accordingly, having cut a small oak staddle, on or about the twentieth of June, 1815, I placed several pieces of it in the fireplace, and put fire under them; after a little while, there appeared at the ends of the sticks a wet circle, describing the exact thickness of the alburnum, and when they became considerably heated, the steam rushed with violence from the tubes of the alburnum, and there was but a slight appearance of vapor over the surface of the heart-wood. On or about the same day of the month of December, of the same year, I had another small oak staddle cut, and went through with the same process with several pieces of it, and when they began to be heated, the whole surface of the heart-wood, except a small circle enclosing the pith, was wet, but the alburnum was dry, and when they were fairly heated through, the steam rushed with violence from the tubes of the heart-wood, although the whole quantity that escaped was not so large as in the other case. The results of these experiments accord with a known fact in regard to the sugar-maple, namely, that no sap can be obtained from the tubes of the alburnum of that tree, and therefore they are obliged to bore the hole for the tube through the alburnum, into the heart-wood before it will run.*

The first experiment shows plainly, that the sap is in the tubes of the alburnum in the summer, and I believe this accords with the present theory in botany; and I believe also, that it is conceded by botanists that the sap is the cause of the dry rot; then why was the practcie of cutting timber in the winter ever introduced, except for the purpose of economy in saving the alburnum from the rot?

In the second experiment it can be clearly seen, that the doctrine of sap being principally in the roots of trees in the winter, is false, and therefore should be discarded for the mischief it has already done, and the truth should be established, which is, *that in the winter the sap is in the tubes of the heart-wood of the whole tree, roots, body and branches, and is there protected from injury by the frost.* By what process it gets there, and how protected, is perhaps yet veiled in mystery; but all must confess, that it is conveyed there by a natural law, and thus protected from injury; the beneficent design is too obvious to be attributed to any other than Almighty power.

At the period I was strenuously advocating the doctrine of cutting timber in the winter, I had a small apple-tree which had been engrafted with a choice fruit, and had been growing perhaps seven or eight years. There was one limb on it which I did not like, because it was growing in a wrong direction, and therefore I took it off in December, because of course I did believe the sap to be then in the roots, and therefore at this season there would none of it be wasted or taken away with the limb, and of consequence the branches left would receive a greater proportion of nourishment in the spring. After the occurrence of the circumstances before detailed, I examined the tree, and found that the part or stump of the limb which remained within the surface of the body, was affected by the dry rot in its purest type. I removed this with my knife and found that the disease had made its attack on the body of the tree itself. The tree, after the limb was taken off, became sickly, and its fruits, after it began to bear, was imperfect.

I would here observe, that it is the common practice, when people cut the timber of a house frame, to do it in the winter, because, as they think, it will be more durable; but they will not trim their trees at that season because they know by experience that they will contract the rot, and therefore they do it in the spring. What a strange oversight! But Doctor Ives, senior, of New Haven, goes even farther; he trims his trees in June, and thinks they do better at that season of the year because the wounds heal quicker. This is right, for as the cause of the disease is *not* in the heart-wood at that season, so the remaining stump, being all heart-wood, can never be attacked by the disease, and therefore the wound will heal quicker; but if it is done in December, the cause of the disease *is* in the heart-wood at the death of the limb, and as the stumps cannot be removed, the consequence is that the disease attacks and very soon destroys *them*, and therefore the wounds will never heal. Although trees thus situated, may, by their abundant foliage, their extended branches, and their smooth and comely bodies appear to be in perfect health, (which is sometimes the case,) yet they are doomed trees, for the canker having entered into their organization, is preying upon their very vitals, and will sooner or later prostrate them in the dust. If any accident should happen to a limb, so as to break it off in the winter, no matter how small, if it be connected with the main pith of the tree, the effect would be the same. And hence the origin of what the carpenters call *punk knots*, that so often appear in our most valuable white pine mast sticks, and the indications of which on the outer surface are many times so minute as to deceive the most vigilent eye, but when perceived and traced, will lead to a mass of decay around the region of the pith.—(*To be continued.*)

*It will be remembered that the sugar maple is always tapped at the close of winter, and first dawning of spring, when there are sunny days and frosty nights.—Ed.

(From the Genesee Farmer.)

EFFECT OF NATURAL CAUSES ON THE AGRICULTURE OF ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

The question has been, not unfrequently asked, how far are farmers in the United States justified in following the example and practices of British Agriculturists? This question assumes an importance it would not otherwise possess, were it not a fact, that we look with great interest to the results of agriculture in that country; that most of our standard agricultural works are from that side of the Atlantic; that the wealth and resources of England are such as to render that island a great theatre of experiments; and, that the arts and the sciences which can be brought to bear on the cultivation of the soil, are far more extensively diffused and better understood there than here.—Having the same Anglo Saxon descent, the influence of England is felt in every department of our social condition; in our religion, literature and law; and perhaps is as potent as any where, in the usages and practices that belong to the cultivation of the earth. In our implements used on the farm, we copy from English models; in improving our breeds of horses, sheep, and cattle, we look to stock imported from England; in our horticulture and floriculture we follow the example of English planters and gardeners; and in our farming operations, in culture, and in selection of grains, the influence of that country is paramount. It is necessary then to inquire how far we may safely follow such an example, and in what respects we ought to deviate, or when it becomes necessary to do so.

To determine this question correctly, it is necessary to take into consideration the position of the two countries, so far as regards climate, soil, and population, and their influence on plants, and the prices of labor. In general it may be laid down as a correct position that the difference between the soils of the two countries is not of a kind to render any difference of culture important. The analysis of soils effected by Sir Humphrey Davy; the geological structure of the British Islands; and the extensive and minute reports made on the soils in the agricultural surveys of the several counties, show that there is no essential difference between the composition of the greater part of the British soils and ours. Peat and bog soil alone, is found more extensively diffused than with us; but this has but little influence on the general progress or course of agriculture.

Population, by justifying or rather compelling English farmers to adopt peculiar systems of farming, may be said to create a wider difference between the agriculture of the two countries than any arising from the soil. Owing to what may be termed an immense surplus population, the price of labor is reduced to the lowest possible rate at which bare subsistence can be procured, and in consequence many methods of farming are there adopted, which could not, at the prices of labor and products, be otherwise than ruinous here. For instance weeding wheat and other kinds of grain is a very common practice there, and multitudes of women and children earn their bread for a considerable part of the season in this manner. It is clear that this operation cannot be introduced among our farmers, though its effects in keeping the soil clean, and in increasing the amount of the crop must be evident. Another consequence too of the cheapness of labor, is, that many operations are performed by hand, and at a far greater expense of time, than are accomplished by the aid of implements here, and in one fourth of the time. This no one can doubt who is in the habit of employing on the same farm English and American laborers; and of which an illustration is given by Mr Bement in his history of the culture of the ruta baga in the Cultivator for January, 1838.

But it is to the climate, that the principal points of difference in the agriculture of the two countries must be traced; and this is the thing that should be kept most distinctly in view, when comparisons between English agriculture and our own are instituted. England, though in the latitude of Quebec, has a milder climate than our middle states, and this fact should not be lost sight of in adapting the agriculture of that country to this. In the United States,—we speak particularly now of the northern and middle states—as it is these that are more influenced by English agriculture than the south,—the summers are much hotter and the winters much colder than in England; hence some plants that require a great degree of heat will succeed better here than there; while many plants will bear the winters of England in the open air, that perish when exposed without protection to the intense cold of our winter months. A great number of thermometrical observations show that the average temperature of the three months of January, February, and March, in England, is about 37°, 42°, and 47°, and that of the three months of June, July, and August to be about 63°, 66°, and 65°. The average difference between the highest and the lowest temperature per month will not exceed more than 6 or 8 degrees, those sudden and extreme changes to which our climate is subject being unknown there. In the valley of the Genesee, near the Ontario, the average for the three winter months gives about 24°, 26°, and 36°, and the three summer months an average of 71°, 73°, and 72°. The mean average of several years is 49°, and the range of the thermometer about 100°. In this country we have changes of from 30° to 40° in twenty-four hours; there the greatest rarely exceeds six or eight. The thermometer range in the United States is more than 120°,—in England not more than 45°. There the thermometer rarely descends but a few degrees below the freezing point; here it is below for weeks or months. Indeed it is probable that in the colder parts of the United States, the thermometer falls below 0° as often as in England it does below 32°.

This statement will show that there must be a material difference between the agricultural operations proper to two countries so situated, so far as those operations can be affected by climate.—To give one instance; Indian corn it is ascertained cannot be grown in any country where the thermometer for more than one month is not above 70°, and that in a temperature of 75° or 80° it arrives at its greatest perfection. This is the reason, why, notwithstanding all the efforts made to introduce corn into Great Britain, it has proved a complete failure. It is not killed with the frost there as here, but the degree of heat will not bring it to maturity during the summer months. Cobbett was confident he should succeed, and did grow some tolerable crops of early Canadian, but like some trees which flourish and mature their seeds here, but will not ripen in England, the corn would not in all cases mature so as to vegetate, and spite of his boastings, he was compelled to abandon the culture. On the contrary wheat is a crop that requires a lower temperature than maize, and is not adapted to a hot dry climate. Great Britain is therefore one of the best wheat countries on the globe, and perhaps produces in proportion to the land in tillage a greater amount than any other. The low temperature and moist climate of England is found to agree with this plant perfectly. Scotland is too cold; but no part of the Island is too hot, as is the case with no inconsiderable portion of our southern States.

In another important respect the climate of the two countries exercises a decided influence, and that is the planting and growth of timber or ornamental trees. Mr Prince of the Linnean Garden at Flushing, remarks on the acclimation of trees, "that the *deciduous* trees of Portugal, Italy, and Spain; and of South Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, will endure the winters of New York, when the *evergreens* from the same places perish if unprotected. Though in England where the winters are moderate these survive and flourish, while from the want of heat in their summers, many of the deciduous trees do not ripen their wood sufficiently to support their climate in winter; whereas beneath the powerful sun of our country, the wood becomes so well matured, that it, in many instances, resists the rigor of our winters uninjured. A consideration of these circumstances, and effects of climate, may greatly aid those concerned in the acclimation of trees." In the work on Planting published in London, speaking of American forest trees, the following remarks are made. "But the oaks of North America, claim the deepest attention of the ornamental planter. Ranging through many degrees of latitude, and growing at different elevations, consequently under much variety of climate, some of them are hardy with us, some tender, but all abhorrent of wet or clayey soils. Deprived of the cloudless sun, and high temperature of an American summer and autumn, they cannot ripen their shoots sufficiently to be frost proof except in warm places and soils of a light nature."

As an instance of the effect of climate on trees we may mention the *Platanus occidentalis*, the common Sycamore, or Button wood, of our forest; a tree which every one knows fringes the margin of most of our streams, and rears its majestic trunks in the rich alluvion of all parts of our country, one of the hardiest and most rapid growing forest trees of the northern states; yet of this tree, the work on planting to which we have referred says, "that it has proved incompetent to withstand the spring frosts, sunless summers, and clouded autumns of England. About twenty years ago a great proportion of the individuals in England, without respect to age or bulk, were killed outright by a spring frost. Since then we have seen them repeatedly injured, and, when half recovered by the operation of a summer of more than average warmth, again replunged into the same state of debility."

To this difference in climate must be attributed the difficulty we have found in the United States of growing hedges from such shrubs or trees as are used in England for this purpose. From witnessing their excellent effect, and beautiful appearance there, it was perfectly natural that we should adopt the same plants for the same purpose here, but after the repeated and persevering efforts of

fifty years, it may be questioned whether there are five miles of tolerable hedge from imported varieties of thorn or holly plants, in the United States. The difference between the moist, temperate, and equable climate of England, and the hot, dry, variable climate of this country seems to have been overlooked; when a recollection of this fact would have convinced any one acquainted with the physiology of plants, that our seasons must be fatal to English hedges. Whether there are any of our native plants that will supply this desideratum, remains to be seen.

Not immediately connected with agriculture, but still closely associated with its prosperity, is the effect of climate on roads. In England all the principal roads are Macdamized or covered with a thin layer of finely broken stone, that uniting by its own angles forms a pavement of rock impervious to water and smooth as a floor. Vast sums of money and labór have been spent in this country in attempting to give some of our principal roads such a surface, but mostly without success. The frosts of our winters penetrate below any coat of metal that can be applied, and the lifting and heaving thus produced will break up and destroy the pavement annually. There can be no doubt that more labor and stone broken, has been applied on the Seneca turnpike between Utica and Canandaigua, than on any similar road in England; yet while one is as smooth as if composed of solid rock, the other for some months in the year is almost impassable. This is owing to the greater intensity of our frost; and in constructing our roads, by overlooking this difference of climate, or not properly guarding against it by deep and effective draining, we have followed a system not adapted to our country. Against this additional difficulty our lines of railroad must contend, and any system of construction that shall place them beyond the action of frost, will be a national benefit.

The worst effect which our variable climate and intense cold, has on our agriculture, when compared with that of England, is its influence on our wheat crop. Such a thing as winter killed wheat is scarcely known in that country; while in many parts of this, especially where clay predominates, wheat in all seasons is more or less liable to injury, and in some years has more than two thirds perished. The heaving out of the roots of wheat and clover plants by the expansion of frost, and which is here the most fatal in the spring of the year when it thaws the surface by day and freezes it by night, is something which agriculturalists in that country are rarely called to guard against, and which of course never enters into their calculations in the preparation of their soil. Here it is advisable in all cases to guard against the evil, by such a system of ploughing and manuring as shall most effectually obviate the danger arising from this source.

In reading or adopting the modes of English farmers in the preparation and application of manure, the influence of climate should not be forgotten. If any thing has been established by agricultural chemistry, it is that all manure loses in value exactly in proportion as the fermentation and decomposition goes on in the open air, by which most of the volatile and finer parts of the manure is lost to plants. In a high temperature, such as our summers possess, yard or stable manure, will ferment rapidly, and if left as it generally is, exposed to the rain and sun, its value and efficiency is much lessened. If piled in large masses, as is practised by some farmers, and then allowed to stand through the summer, a custom followed to some extent in England, it must be remembered that fermentation and decomposition goes on here with a rapidity unknown there, a fact depending on the greater heat of our summers, and hence the more necessity of guarding against the loss of the fertilizing gases thus liberated. The proper place for the decomposition of manure is beneath the surface of the earth; but where it is desirable as it sometimes may be to keep it over the summer for fall application, the manure should be piled in layers alternating with earth, (and if this is partially combined with lime so much the better) which will absorb the volatile salts and parts thrown off by the decomposition and fermentation which in our climate must take place, and the quantity and quality of the manure will be greatly increased, over what it would be if left to ferment in the yard, or heaped, but uncovered with earth.

It appears then, that in things relating to the soil alone, its preparation or amelioration, the application of animal or mineral manures, or the artificial arrangement of crops, American farmers may with safety copy the example of British farmers, and derive important advantage from the perusal of English works on agriculture. So they in general may, in all things relating to the preservation of crops from insects or diseases, such as the grub, cutworm, blight, mildew, wheatworm, &c. as these are common to both countries, and the balance of experience is altogether in favor of Europe. In every thing relating to wheat they are entitled to a hearing above all other men; as in no country is the culture of that valuable grain carried on so successfully; and this is owing in a great measure to the skill and science that has been brought to bear on the production of that crop. In raising cattle, and the common and improved breeds of middling fine wooled sheep, English farmers are exceeded by none, and on all these topics they may be considered as qualified to instruct us. Fine wooled sheep, however, notwithstanding the pains taken with them have never succeeded in England. The imported merinoes from Spain and Saxony have deteriorated and wasted away; and their place with the English farmer is supplied by the harder and heavier Leicester and South Down. The immense quantities of fine wools used in the English factories, are imported from Germany, France, and Spain; and hence in the management and growth of the fine wooled breeds of sheep, we have little to learn from them. There is no doubt that the production of fine wool is at the present moment far better understood in the northern states than in England, and there are more Saxon and Merino sheep in Vermont and New Hampshire, than in the three kingdoms.

But it is mainly on those points of agriculture, where cheapness of labor, and the influence of climate can be brought to bear, that we find British agriculture to cease from being suitable models for us, and are thrown on our own resources of observation and comparison. Because corn cannot be grown in England is no reason why the farmers of the United States should not plant; and on the other hand, because the whin and the holly make a durable and beautiful fence in England, it furnishes no conclusive proof that such results would ensue in our country. English farmers use little or no precaution against the winter killing of wheat, or the destruction of roads by frost; but here such precautions are essentially necessary, and based on reasons, respecting which the English farmer knows nothing from experience, and therefore must be illy qualified to instruct.

A comparison of English experience in farming, with our, in some respects, ruder methods of proceeding, must be always advantageous, as suggesting hints for improvement, and enabling us to correct errors into which, for want of such experience, we are prone to fall. But to infer that any course, would, as a whole, be successful here, simply because it has proved so there, would imply an ignorance of the causes that are operating to produce great differences in the methods of culture there and here, which should not exist; causes which may be traced to the powerful, but too frequently overlooked operations of temperature and climate, and which are therefore ever acting and permanent.

For the N. E. Farmer.

South Strafford, June 14, 1838.

MESSRS EDITORS—I bought a pig last fall weighing 90 lbs. A few days after he was brought home he was taken with what I supposed to be the blind staggers, he was treated as is usual in such cases, say by cutting off his ears, putting salt in his forehead, &c. in a few days, he so far recovered as to eat with his usual appetite. I then gave him a dose of sulphur, he continued to eat well till the day he died, but pined away to a mere skeleton, and became so weak that he stumbled into a small pond and strangled to death. I had him carefully examined, and on taking out his lights found them growing fast to his ribs, which I think is never the case in healthy animals. In the lights were found four worms 4 1-2 inches long about the size of a common pin; his heart case was grown fast to his heart so that it was with difficulty it could be separated without pulling the heart in pieces. Will you or some of your correspondents inform me through your paper, what was this disorder? what the cause and remedy if any?

I would just remark here that I have taken your paper two years and get much useful information from it. There are many things known and practised by some, which if made public would be of great benefit to the cause of agriculture. I saw an article in your paper last fall respecting saving apple pumice for cattle in winter, the idea was new to me for I had always considered it of little value except for pigs who got a few seed from it. I had what was left at my mill spread in a shed chamber and dried for winter's use; it was fed out the first of the winter the same as grain or potatoes, and the cattle and sheep ate it with as good a relish. I think I speak within bounds, when I say it saved me at least $12 worth of hay, which would have been almost entirely lost had I not seen the article before alluded to. I think it would be well for farmers to write more for your paper, and let each other know how to make these little savings, and then the advantage which will be derived will be MUTUAL.

It is a fact, disgraceful to the American people as well as the government, that there is not a single Life Boat on the whole vast extent of American Coast, the most dangerous and inaccessible, taking the seasons through, in the commercial world.—*Salem Gaz.*

NEW ENGLAND FARMER,
AND GARDENER'S JOURNAL.

BOSTON, WEDNESDAY, JULY 4, 1838.

MANURE—CONSTRUCTION OF BARN CELLAR.

We have already remarked on the value of manure to the farmer. In our old lands it is idle to think of success in agriculture without some artificial means of enriching the land. We have spoken of the extraordinary prices paid for manure by farmers in the vicinity of our large towns. We know the fact that six dollars have been sometimes paid in the city for a cord of manure; and at a country town several miles in the interior seven dollars and a half per cord were paid the last season for all that could be obtained. Manure it is true must be had; but what shall we say of the good judgment or management of farmers who pay such prices, when the means in abundance of supplying their wants at half this expense are or might be had upon their own premises. We know a farmer, who annually expends five hundred dollars for manure in a city; and then is obliged to transport it a distance of three or four miles Yet the same farmer has resources within himself where for the same expense he might obtain twice the amount of manure, and of equal value. He has no barn cellar; he has no compost heap; his cattle are not yarded excepting in winter; he collects no bog mud; he takes no pains to save the contents of his sink and privy; he fats no cattle; he keeps but a single pig; he sells his hay; he sells his milk; he sells his potatoes; he raises no esculent vegetables for his stock; and this perpetual purchase and carting of manure, to say nothing of the money paid out, is an occasion of excessive toil, fatigue, and vexation. True he "makes money" even in this way and finds a reasonable compensation for his labor. It would be difficult to turn him from his accustomed track; but will any reflecting mind pretend that "he works it right."

But we will proceed to say what may be done; and then leave it to the farmers to say what ought to be done.

In the first place, then, manure should be as much a specific object of labor and pursuit with the farmer as any of his crops, simply because he cannot have any crops without it. His first business should be to provide a place for its deposit, its accumulation and its security Manure is money. It costs money. It produces money. Precisely then as he would take care of his money, let him take care of his manure. For his use there is no difference between them save that the returns of manure skilfully and faithfully applied are usually more certain and proportionately more liberal than the returns of money. He wants therefore a place for its deposit and its accumulation. It should be near at hand, where it will be easy to transfer to it all that will contribute to its increase. It should be near the barn, where it may receive all the deposits of the cattle; and should be so situated that the liquid as well as the solid manure may be secured. It should be in the neighborhood of the hogs pen, that their manure may go into the common heap. If possible the privy should be near to it, that the powerful manure furnished from that source may be mixed with the collections; and the sink should be so contrived as to empty its rich contents into the common receptacle to moisten it, and increase its efficacy. It should be the great object of the farmer in the next place to secure it from the sun, the rain, and the air. Manure thus protected and housed in the opinion of some of the best farmers in the state, is far more powerful, and, to use their own phrase, it is worth fifty per cent. more than that, which is left exposed in the usual mode. It is more active, and more powerful. A barn cellar built expressly for the purpose of thus securing the manure, is the proper receptacle for the compost heap; and to form a general deposit of whatever may be thrown into it.

No farmer therefore should be without a cellar under his whole barn. The cost is comparatively trifling; the uses and advantages most important. It should be well stoned; the bottom made slightly dishing; and paved or made impervious to the water by being puddled with clay. It should have a trap-door or doors in the barn floor and where the cattle are tied, so that all their droppings may be thrown into it; and that mud, or mould or peat may be easily put into it both for the sake of increasing the heap by these valuable additions; and that they may act likewise as absorbents to gather and fix all the liquid manures. It should be high enough to receive a wagon or cart for the purpose of loading; and it should be completely enclosed that the contents may be secured from the sun, and rain and air. The proper site for a barn is on a side hill, where the bottom of the cellar may on one side be on a level with the surface of the ground; and where three sides being formed by an excavation into the side hill may be well stoned; and the fourth side protected by movable wooden doors. It should be likewise a place for housing a certain number of store swine, who are to be employed in turning, dissolving and enriching the contents of the cellar. Such is what a barn cellar ought to be.—There are few situations, where such a cellar cannot be formed. We have seen many such cellars, and are happy in perceiving that they are fast coming into use; and that, in regard to barns recently erected or in the process of erection, a valuable barn is now seldom built without such provision. The cost of such a cellar will in any situation be fully paid for in a short time by the increased quantity and increased value of the manure — We often hear farmers say they would have a barn cellar if they could afford it Now we say that if any man calling himself a farmer cannot afford to make a cellar under his barn, he hardly deserves the name of a farmer and certainly has no pretensions to the character of skilful or wise or provident. We should add that such a cellar should always if possible open to the South. In the spring this is desirable in order to facilitate the removal of the manure; and in a cellar opening to the South, the contents of the cellar are far less likely to be frozen than if the opening of the cellar were to the North and in the shade.

We leave this subject for the present and shall endeavor to resume it in our next. The importance of a barn cellar is so great that we take every occasion to urge its erection on every thrifty farmer, and the suggestions here given, though they may be familiar, embrace the prominent and important points in the construction of a barn cellar.

We might go farther and recommend a separate and water-tight vault for the reception of the liquid manure; to which, by gutters properly constructed, all the urine of the cattle when tied in the barn, might be at once conveyed, with strainers so fixed that the solid parts might be effectually excluded; and that from this reservoir it might be pumped out and distributed at pleasure. This is the universal practice in what may perhaps be considered the best farming district in the world: Flanders; and here these cisterns are made of stone. But this is an advance in improvement to which it can scarcely be expected that our farmers should proceed until a vastly increased and crowded population shall compel them to adopt every practicable means of improvement. We have met with only two cases, where such provision has been made. The advantages in these cases were obviously so great, that though we may not look for any thing like a general introduction, we may at least hope to see such provision occasionally, and perhaps frequently made.

A GOOD COW.

The value of a good cow can scarcely be over-estimated. We have seen a cow the last week, who besides giving milk enough for a calf, which she has suckled the last seven weeks, has given sixteen quarts of milk daily for family use and for sale. Her milk likewise is of an excellent quality. In ten and half months of the last year, she yielded 3975 quarts of milk, beer measure, and her keeping was not extravagant. She has now good grass feed and three pints of meal daily; in winter she has hay and two quarts of Indian meal; but no swill or vegetables. The latter might certainly be added to advantage. The milk is readily sold in the neighborhood, where she is kept, at five cents per quart. What domestic animal yields a more liberal profit? Why, she puts to shame three fourths of the bipeds in the country; who so far from furnishing any valuable contribution to the general stock, do not earn even the iced creams with which they regale themselves! A good cow is one of the greatest benefactions, which divine Providence ever bestowed upon the human family in the form of a quadruped; and every friend to true respectability and merit, as far as respectability and merit depend upon usefulness, will be more than half inclined to take off his hat to such a noble animal, who certainly does more good in her way than most of the noisy politicians in the country in any way. We have known a cow, who several years made a return to her owner of more than 150 dollars each year by the sale of her milk at five cents a quart; and we know an instance, where an honest man, who had become utterly bankrupt, yet was not bankrupt in the best of all possessions an independent spirit and a determination to live within his means, supported himself, wife, and children for six months with no other income or resource than the milk of one good cow. We say we have known some such cows; and we deem them very worthy acquaintance.—If it is not an honor it is certainly a pleasure to have known them; and we are not surprised at the superstition of the poor Hindoos, who made the cow an object of idolatrous worship, for where could these poor benighted children of nature find in a humble and familiar form, a more striking example of the beneficence of a kind providence. With appetites not depraved by luxury they sat down under her flowing udder after the fatigues of toil and the exhaustion of heat, to regale themselves from this daily flowing fountain, with a zest like that with which the parched Arab approaches a spring among the burning sands; and now in some parts of the world, where rural life exists in all its simplicity, the poor cottager and his children may be seen with their basins at night gathering round this their daily benefactor with the same grateful pleasure with which the Israelites came round the gushing fountains from the rock in the wilderness. Respect and honor the cow; treat her well; begrudge her no kindness; there is no animal will more fully compensate your liberality; and when we hear farmers say, as we often do, in a boasting way, how much butter and milk they get from their cows, and then add "but they go in a very poor pasture and we give them nothing, and in winter keep them upon nothing better than fresh meadow hay," we are half disposed to say that such owners deserve nothing, and ought to go in the same poor pasture with their cows. As we have said on a former occasion, it is a false and miserable economy.

The cow to which we have referred above was of native stock, and raised by her present owner. It adds to the many proofs, which are constantly presenting themselves, to establish the great position that our present dairy stock requires only careful selection and good keeping to furnish as valuable a race of milking animals as we can expect to obtain by the importation of the best breeds, which have yet been brought into the country.

Massachusetts Horticultural Society.

EXHIBITION OF FLOWERS.

Saturday, June 23, 1838.

——"Roses, laden with the breath of June,
* * * * * *
Able to heal the sick."

Our friends have answered our call, and have exceeded our expectations by their liberal contributions of choice specimens of some of the finest varieties of the "queen of flowers."

Marshall P. Wilder, Esq of Dorchester, again placed himself at the head of the competitors, by the quantity and quality of his specimens.

In the collection of Augustus Aspinwall, Esq. of Brookline, we noticed some two or three new varieties, and some superb flowers.

Thomas Lee, Esq. of Brookline, presented some specimens of the most delicate and lovely varieties.

The China roses by Samuel R. Johnson, Esq. of Charlestown, were of the best kinds Mr J. also exhibited some choice hardy roses.

In the stand of Samuel Sweetser, Esq. of Cambridge, we noticed some choice varieties of China and hardy roses, cultivated in the best manner.

There were also contributions of Roses and other flowers from Messrs Winship of Brighton, Hovey & Co. of Cambridge; Carter of the Botanic Garden; Hovey of Roxbury; Meller of Roxbury; and S. Walker.

Seedling Roses.—The Messrs Winship of Brighton, presented some seedling roses, one or two of which we hope to see other specimens of, as we are under the impression one of their seedlings, at least, is superior to many of the varieties imported.

By E. Breed, Esq. of Charlestown, a fine specimen of Cactus speciosissimus. This plant was in a high state of cultivation and does his gardener much credit.

From the Messrs Winship, Cactus ?—a new variety to us, with a large white flower.—Very beautiful.

From T. Magoun, Jr. Esq. of Medford, some fine specimens of Magnolia glauca, Mountain Laurel, and Glycine frutescens.

For the Commitee,
S. WALKER, *Chairman.*

The Committee on Roses award to

Marshall P. Wilder, Esq. of Dorchester, the prize of five dollars for the best display of Roses; and also the prize of three dollars for the best 24 hardy varieties.

To Augustus Aspinwall, Esq. of Brookline, the prize of two dollars for the best 12 varieties of hardy varieties.

And to Samuel R. Johnson, Esq. of Charlestown, the prize of three dollars for the best 12 china and other tender varieties.

For the Committee,
S. WALKER, *Chairman.*

The Committee on Pinks award to

S. Walker, Esq. of Roxbury, the prize of $5, for the best display.

To Mr Meller, of Roxbury, $3, for the best seedling.

No person entering for the best six varieties, the committee of course awarded no premiums.

M. P. WILDER, *Chairman.*

FRUITS.

Strawberries.—8 boxes of very fine Methven Castle, from Mr J. L. L. F. Warren.

From Mr Vose, President of the Society, very superb specimens of Keen's Seedling.

Peaches.—Fine Peaches, at this remarkably early day, from the Peach house of Aaron Mitchell, Esq. of Nantucket. For the Committee. W. KENRICK, *Chairman.*

VEGETABLES.

Rhubarb.—By Mr. S. Pond, Cambridge, some very large Giant Rhubarb. For Committee.

S. WALKER.

EXHIBITION OF FLOWERS.

Saturday, June 30th, 1838.

The contributions of flowers were on a large scale. Some of the specimens were of the first order and of great beauty.

Roses.—By Mr A. Aspinwall, of Brookline, Mr S. R. Johnson of Charlestown; and Col. M. P. Wilder, of Dorchester.

Pinks.—By Col. Wilder; Mr Meller; and S. Walker, Roxbury.

Dahlias.—From Dr J. C. Howard, Brookline; also, Bouquet, with roses, &c.

Pansies.—By Mr Wilder, and S. Walker.

Boquets.—By Messrs Winship; Hovey & Co; W. Kenrick, John Hovey, S. Sweetser and S. Walker.

The Messrs Winship, of Brighton, also presented specimens of the *Sambucus;* and Mr S. Sweetser specimens of *Nerium.* For the Committee.

S. WALKER, *Chairman.*

FRUITS.

Strawberries.—Methven Castle and Downton specimens, by Mr Vose, President of the Society: both very remarkable for their size and beauty.

From Mr J. L. L. Warren, from his garden in Brighton—4 boxes of large and beautiful Methven Castle.

Cherries.—A very large, dark, red cherry, presented by Henry Edwards, Esq., from his garden in the city—very sweet and fine, and much resembling the Black Tartarian. For the Committee.

WILLIAM KENRICK, *Chairman.*

THERMOMETRICAL.

Reported for the New England Farmer.

Range of the Thermometer at the Garden of the proprietors of the New England Farmer, Brighton, Mass. in a shaded Northerly exposure, week ending July 1.

July, 1838.		7 A.M.	12, M.	5, P.M.	Wind.
Monday,	25	56	70	64	E.
Tuesday,	26	48	62	60	N. E.
Wednesday,	27	54	66	62	S.
Thursday,	28	58	80	76	
Friday,	29	52	70	68	
Saturday,	30	50	62	58	
Sunday,	1	52	70	66	

Massachusetts Horticultural Society.

The Rooms of the Masachusetts Horticultural Society, 23 Tremont Row, are open for the public every Saturday morning, from 10 till 12 o'clock.

The Fruits and Flowers are usually for sale.

SITUATION WANTED,

As Gardener, by a young man of practical knowledge and can be well recommended. A Situation West or South would be preferred. Address R. B. through the office of this paper.

SCYTHES AND RAKES.

Just received at the Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store, a complete assortment of Garden and Field Tools, consisting in part of

100 dozen Hall's Rakes, superior.
100 do. Wilder & Eddy's, do.
200 do. Common do.
25 do. English Cast Steel Grass Scythes.
10 do. do. do. Cradle do.
10 do. do. do. Border do.
100 do. Round Scythe Stones.
100 do. Square do.
100 do. Cast Steel Garden Hoes.
100 pair Grass Shears.
100 do. Pruning do.
100 do. Fruit do.
50 dozen Patent Sheep Shears.
20 do. Pruning do.
20 do. do. Saws.
25 do. Budding Knives.
25 do. Pruning do.
20 do. Edging do.
25 do. Breaking up Hoes.
100 do. Garden do.
50 do. Dutch do.
20 do. Bill and Brier Hooks,
10 do. Grass do.
50 do. Garden Rakes,
500 pair Chains, for tying up cattle,
500 do. Trace Chains.
25 dozen Halter do.

—ALSO—

300 dozen Patent Scythe Snaiths, superior.
100 do. Cast Steel and other Shovels,
1000 do. Rifles, 500 do. Scythe Stones.
June 27, 1837.

ALDERNEY STOCK FOR SALE.

For sale, a full blooded Bull, 3 years old the first of July next—one Cow, five years old—and a Heifer three years old. The Cows are said to be the richest Milkers of any imported. For further particulars address L. M. WHEATON, Norton, Mass., or a line left at this office, will meet with prompt attention. June 27

SET OF THE N. E. FARMER.

13 of the first volumes of the New England Farmer may be obtained, if application is made soon to JOSEPH BRECK & Co.

June 20th, 1837.

FOR SALE OR TO LET.

A pleasant and convenient house in complete repair situated on the Worcester Turnpike, 5 1-2 miles from Boston and 2 miles from Brighton market. The house contain contains 9 large rooms, and has a barn, chaise house and sheds attached. Also, with the same, 3 acres of mowing and tillage land and 1 1-2 acres wood land. An adjoining lot of 5 acres can be had, if desired. Three quarters of the purchase money can remain upon a mortgage. If not sold, the house will be let to a good tenant. Enquire of D. HOLBROOK

No. 51 Court St. Boston, or on the premises.

June 13, 1838,

KING'S MANURE FORKS.

Also, a few dozen of Jahasiah S. King's superior cast steel

Strap Manure Forks.

A first rate article. Also, sets of

Japan Flower Pots,

very neat and durable. Also, Complete Garden and

Horticultural Tool Chests,

from Sheffield, England; containing Garden Shears, Improved pruning Shears and Scissors, Pruning and Grafting Knives, Flower Gatherer, Garden, Dutch and Triangular Hoes, Saw, Spud, Weeding Hook, Garden Rake, Trowel, Hammer and Garden Reel; comprising every useful implement necessary for the cultivation of the Flower Garden. For sale at the N. E. Agricultural Warehouse, No. 51 & 52 North Market Street.

May 9, 1838.

REVOLVING HORSE RAKE.

The Revolving Rake, which has been in general use in most parts of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, is found to be one of the most useful and labor saving machines now in use. One man and horse will rake on an average, from fifteen to twenty acres per day, with ease, and do the work well, it not being necessary to stop the horse to unload. They are coming into very general use in all parts of the country, and will, no doubt, in a few years, supercede the use of the common hand rake. For sale at the New England Agricultural Warehouse and Seed Store. JOSEPH BRECK & CO.

GUNNY BAGS.

9000 Second Hand Gunny Bags, 500 Gunny Sacks, a cheap article for Hop Bagging. For Sale low by G. W. STEARNS, No. 10 Commercial Wharf. 1m

June 27.

PRICES OF COUNTRY PRODUCE.

CORRECTED WITH GREAT CARE, WEEKLY.

		FROM	TO
Apples,	barrel	2 00	3 00
Beans, white,	bushel	1 25	1 75
Beef, mess,	barrel	14 00	14 50
No. 1.	"	12 00	12 25
prime,	"	10 00	11 00
Beeswax, (American)	pound	28	34
Cheese, new milk,	"	6	10
Feathers, northern, geese,	"		
southern, geese,	"	37	45
Flax, (American)	"	9	12
Fish, Cod,	quintal		
Flour, Genessee, cash,	barrel	7 75	7 87
Baltimore, Howard street,	"	7 75	8 00
Baltimore, wharf,	"	7 62	7 75
Alexandria,	"	7 75	
Rye,	"	5 00	5 25
Meal, Indian, in hogsheads,			
" " barrels,		3 50	3 75
Grain: Corn, northern yellow,	bushel		
southern flat, yellow,	"	75	76
white,	"	73	74
Rye, northern,	"	1 00	1 02
Barley,	"	74	76
Oats, northern, (prime)	"	40	42
Hay, best English, per ton of 2000 lbs.			16 00
Eastern screwed,		12 00	14 00
Honey, Cuba,	gallon	40	45
Hops, 1st quality,	pound	6	7
2d quality,	"	4	5
Lard, Boston, 1st sort,	"	9	10
southern, 1st sort,	"	8	9
Leather, Philadelphia city tannage,	"	26	27
do. country do.	"	20	22
Baltimore city tannage,	"	25	26
do. dry hides,	"		
New York red, light,	"	18	19
Boston, do. slaughter,	"	19	20
Boston dry hides,	"	17	19
Lime, best sort,	cask	80	85
Mackerel, No. 1, new,	barrel	11 50	12 00
Plaster Paris, per ton of 2200 lbs.	cask	2 37	2 50
Pork, extra clear,	barrel	23 00	24 00
clear,	"	22 00	23 00
Mess,	"	21 00	22 00
Seeds: Herd's Grass,	bushel	2 63	3 00
Red Top, southern,	"	80	1 00
northern,	"		
Hemp,	"	2 62	3 00
Red Clover, northern,	pound		18
Southern Clover,	"	17	18
Tallow, tried,	lb.	9	10
Teazles, 1st sort,	pr. M.	3 00	3 50
Wool, prime, or Saxony Fleeces,	pound	48	50
American, full blood, washed,	"	38	40
do. 3-4ths do.	"		36
do. 1-2 do.	"		
do. 1-4 and common,	"		35
Northern pulled. Pulled superfine,	"	38	40
No. 1,	"	35	36
No. 2,	"	25	28
No. 3,	"		

PROVISION MARKET.

RETAIL PRICES.

Hams, northern,	pound	13	14
southern and western,	"	10	12
Pork, whole hogs,	"	9	10
Poultry, per pair,	"	62	1 00
Butter, tub,	"	16	28
lump,	"	20	25
Eggs,	dozen	14	16
Potatoes, chenango,	bushel	30	50
Cider,	barrel	2 75	3 00

FANEUIL HALL VEGETABLE MARKET.

Sugar Peas,	per bushel,	$2 00
Small "	"	1 50
Turnips,	per bunch,	8
Cucumbers,	per dozen,	1 00
Lettuce,	do.	37
Radishes'	do.	37
Rhubarb,	per pound,	4

—FRUITS.—

Strawberries,	quart,	37 a 50
Gooseberries, (green)	do.	16
Cherries,	quart,	12 a 25
Currants,	do.	

MISCELLANY.

THE OAK TREE.

BY MARY HOWITT.

Sing for the Oak Tree,
The monarch of the wood,
Sing for the Oak Tree,
That groweth green and good;
That groweth broad and branching,
Within the forest shade;
That groweth now, and yet shall grow,
When we are lowly laid!

The Oak Tree was an acorn once,
And fell upon the earth;
And sun and showers nourished it,
And gave the Oak Tree birth.
The little sprouting Oak Tree!
Two leaves it had at first,
Till sun and showers had nourished it,
Then out the branches burst.

The little sapling Oak Tree!
Its root was like a thread,
Till the kindly earth had nourished it;
Then out it freely spread;
On this side and on that side
It grappled with the ground,
And in the ancient, rifted rock,
Its firmest footing found.

The winds came, and the rain fell;
The gusty tempests blew;
All, all were friends to the Oak Tree,
And stronger yet it grew.
The boy that saw the acorn fall
He feeble grew and gray;
But the Oak was still a thriving tree,
And strengthened every day!

Four centuries grows the Oak Tree,
Nor does its verdure fail;
Its heart is like the iron wood,
Its bark like plaited mail;
Now cut us down the Oak Tree,
The monarch of the wood;
And of its timbers stout and strong
We 'll build a vessel good.

The Oak Tree of the forest,
Both east and west shall fly;
And the blessings of a thousand lands
Upon our ship shall lie!
For she shall not be a man-of-war,
Nor a pirate shall she be;
But a noble, Christian merchant-ship,
To sail upon the sea.

ADVICE OF A FARMER TO HIS BOYS.

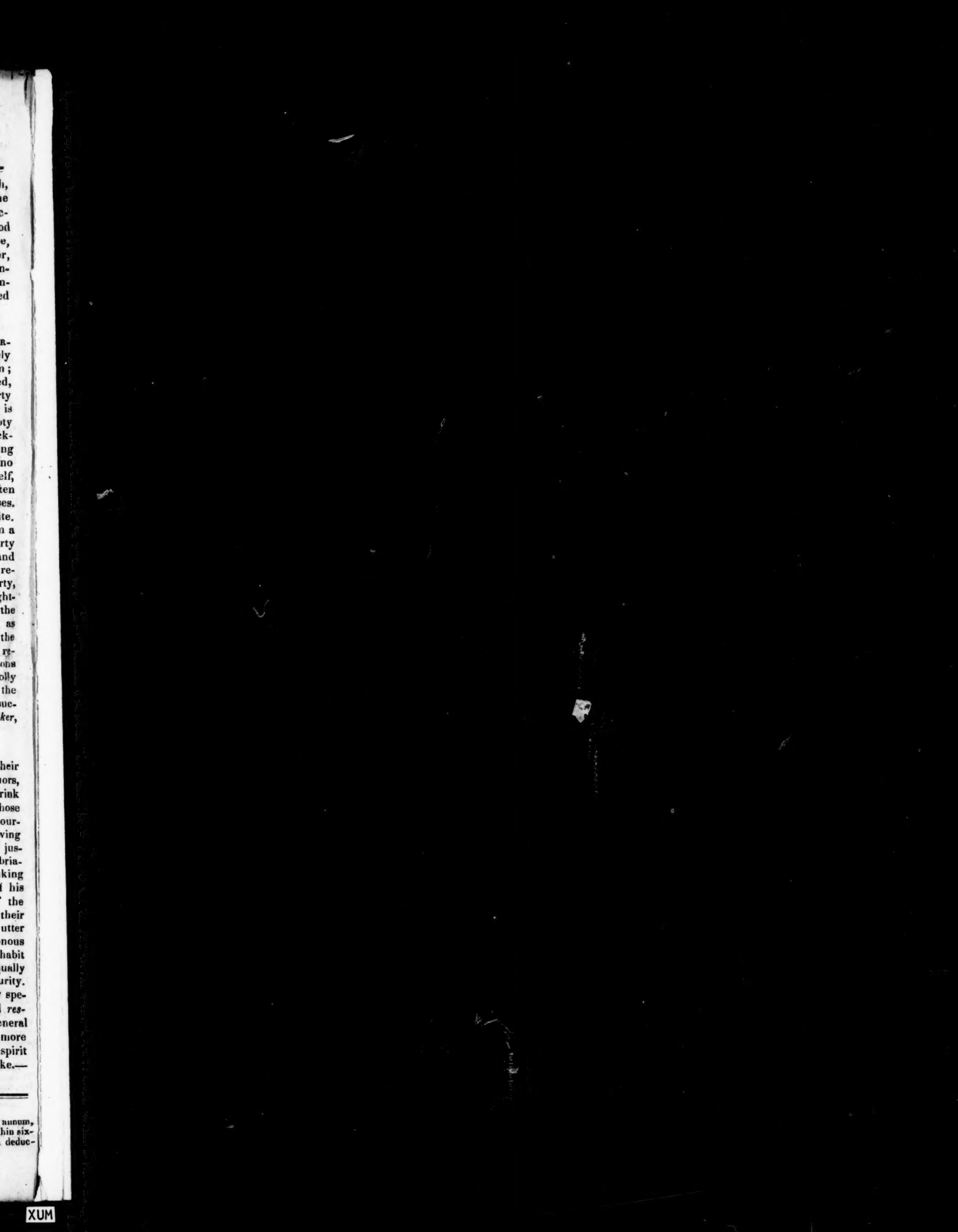
Come boys, let us see if we cant't farm a little better this season than we did last. I think we can if we make an effort; and if every succeeding year we outstrip the preceding one, I think in a few years you will be able to set up for yourselves. We have already sown our grass seed this spring, thicker than heretofore, which, there is reason to believe, will amply repay us for the additional seed, as we have heretofore always had more or less bald places in our grass fields, or had them filled up with weeds. We have some seed oats which weigh ten or twelve pounds a bushel more than the common kind we have usually sown; this cannot fail to be an advantage of at least 25 per cent. over the light stuff we have had in former years, and if it is found to become lighter by being re-sowed; we must change our seed again at a future time. As for Indian corn, the "Dutton," of which we have plenty for seed, I think will answer our purpose the best of any kind I have seen, if we put it in handsomely and give the strictest attention to the dressing of it with the cultivator; let us give it a couple of extra dressings during the summer, and keep the ground as mellow as an ash-heap; this is the only way I know of to make a good crop of Indian corn. It suffers more from neglect than any other crop we cultivate; but stop, let us collect our ashes together and put a handful of it, with as much Plaster of Paris, on each hill, as soon as the corn is fully up; this pays well for expense and trouble. But I am getting wrong end foremost with my plan; be sure when you go to the city next week, to buy a pound of salt-petre to make a steep for the corn before it is planted; this is said to be an excellent plan, as the corn comes up much more vigorously after being soaked in saltpetre, and is sooner out of the way of the birds and grubs, which is a matter of great importance. Well, we had forty bushels to the acre last year; now can we go fifty or sixty this, if the season is favorable, and we pay strict attention to it; let us try for it any how; and one thing I am certain of, that our success will be in proportion to our exertions, other things being equal. We must increase our potato crop, and raise an acre of sugar beet, and the same quantity of ruta-baga for winter food for our cattle and sheep; the attention to these root crops is light work, and I think need not interfere with our other business; besides, I intend to buy neighbor Jones' old still, as he has quit making whiskey with it, since his two fine promising boys have gone to destruction by the use of that vile article. I think he will sell it cheap, as it sickens his heart to think of a still, since the prostration of all his prospects for the advancement of his once fine boys. We can fix this up so as to steam our roots and grain for the hogs and cattle, and I have a great notion to try it to cut corn stalks and hay, for it is said they go much further and feed better by being cut and steamed. The millers' toll may also be saved by steaming the grain we feed, instead of having it ground. If all the stills in the country were used for preparing food for animals, instead of making poison for men, it would save at least ten millions of dollars annually, and clear out most of our poor-houses and jails, and prevent many a parent from going to the grave with a broken heart. Let us turn to to-morrow morning right early, and drive on our work vigorously during the season, and with the blessings of Providence on our united exertions we shall find ourselves blessed in basket and in store even beyond our deserts.

ABRAM.

THE REWARD OF INDUSTRY.—The now Right Hon. Sir John Cowan, Bart., and present Lord Mayor of the city of London, came to town in the humble capacity of an errand boy, and was employed in a wax-chandler's shop, which stood nearly opposite the present site of the Mansion house. The drudgery which the duties of this office imposed, were performed by him, day after day without a murmur, and each task set him by his employer was executed in such a manner as quickly to gain him the esteem and friendship of all who knew him. A few years rolled by, and he was promoted to the situation of shopman, when his unsurpassed industry, and the strictest integrity, again procured him the confidence and attachment of his master. About this time it was his good fortune to win the affections of his master's daughter (the present Lady Mayoress,) and their marriage taking place soon after, with the consent of her parent, he was further elevated to the distinguished post of partner in the firm. Here he remained till his partner's death, which occurred some time afterwards, and the entire business then devolved upon him. A succession of years, during which his previous good qualities characterised him in an eminent degree, brought with them wealth, opulence, and power, and from that time up to the present he has continued his career, in a manner alike worthy of himself and the city of which he is the distinguished representative.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN POVERTY AND PAUPERISM.—"It is of the utmost importance accurately to distinguish between poverty and pauperism; for by confounding them, poverty is dishonored, and pauperism is countenanced. Supply poverty with the means and it vanishes, but pauperism is the more confirmed. Poverty is a sound empty vessel, but pauperism is not only empty but cracked. Poverty is a natural appetite merely wanting food; pauperism a ravenous disease which no food can satisfy. Poverty strives to cure itself, pauperism to contaminate others. Poverty often stimulates to exertion, pauperism always paralyses. Poverty is sincere, pauperism is an arch-hypocrite. Poverty has naturally a proud spirit, pauperism a base one, now cringing, now insolent. Poverty is silent and retiring, pauperism is clamorous and importunate; the one is grateful, the other the reverse. There is much that is lovely in poverty, but pauperism is altogether hateful. It is delightful to relieve the one; irksome to be taxed for the other. Poverty has the blessing of heaven, as well as those that relieve it; pauperism on the contrary, has nothing in common but is the reverse of the christian virtues. The injunctions of the gospel are in favor of poverty, but wholly in opposition to the spirit of pauperism, and the merit of those individuals who thoughtlessly succor it, may be estimated accordingly."—*Walker, in Farmar's Magazine.*

How common it is to see people who set their faces as a flint against the use of alcoholic liquors, and refuse to give employment to those who drink them, and withdraw their patronage from those persons who deal in them; and in their zeal, pourtray the evils of drunkenness in the most glowing colors, and hale its victims to the bar of civil justice that they may be punished for their inebriations, and when they see a poor laborer drinking a glass of spirit and water, admonish him of his danger of becoming a drunkard; and of the dreadful consequences of that vice, while in their own breath and from the very mouths that utter these admonitions, they send forth that poisonous and filthy odor of tobacco, which betrays the habit of stimulation even more disgusting, and equally destructive to health, and life, and moral purity. Nay they do not hesitate to indulge in every species of stimulation and sensuality considered *respectable* in a corrupt world, and thus, as a general fact, are in the true sense of the word far more intemperate than the laborer who drinks his spirit and water and receives his pharisaical rebuke.—*Graham Journal.*

THE NEW ENGLAND FARMER

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